5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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ground, and with harvesting, which he may not do. Upon marriage, the new wife is usually expected to garden on her husband's land. There is a fiction that, at the time of marriage, she 'does not know' the work she is expected to do on the land of her new affines. Her mother-in-law has to instruct her and it is only after such an apprenticeship that her husband's people consider her competent to tend taro on their land, harvest it and offer it to visitors in proper style. She would usually have been trained in these tasks by the women of her own clan, but the subtleties of family traditions differ.

As against these male and female obligations, we may note some clearcut rights: the man's right to his wife's labour and the wife's equally important right of unlimited access to the husband's garden land and to its produce. This right extends not only to harvesting food for the household, but also for gifts she may choose to make outside the household, providing that she manages the food supply so as to avoid shortages. A domestic dispute I observed in Sivepe (referred to in Chapter III above) illustrates the importance attached to this married woman's right. When this dispute was adjudicated, the 'explanation' of the breakdown of the marriage was found in a single incident, namely the husband's instruction to his wife not to go to his garden again. Here, in the view of everyone present, lay the 'root' of the trouble, a judgement with which the husband was willing to agree. This prohibition to go to his garden is one of the few things a husband is on no account to utter to his wife; it amounts to total repudiation of the conjugal relationship.

This brief discussion of social practices has already indicated that a garden plot is a gift made by a man to a woman, while the productiveness of the land is a gift from a woman to a man (because a man can neither plant nor harvest). Let us now consider to what extent the nature of these gifts may be clarified in the light of rituals, myths and indigenous explanations. It will be best to begin with some legal ideas about land. As has been pointed out by Salisbury (1962: 67ff.) among others, several sets of rights arise with respect to any one piece of land: rights of the village, of the clan, of the lineage, and of the 'father of the ground' or trustee. It is the last-mentioned person who assigns a piece of land (*enda*) to a cultivator for the purpose of making a garden (*pure*). The cultivator to whom land may be assigned may be either male or female. Among the Orokaiva it is common for women to have land assigned to them for cultivation in their own right, even though most land is assigned to males. They receive this land mostly from a father or brother, sometimes from their mother. When a woman wishes to have a garden established on her land, she (voluntarily) transfers the land to her husband or another male on a temporary basis so that he can carry out the crucial male tasks without which the garden cannot be made. These tasks are ritual as well as productive. It is common for the men of a clan to hold a feast together and to kill a pig from which they eat and obtain strength (*ivo*), before clearing new ground. The fertility of the soil depends greatly on getting a good burn after clearing, and a good burn depends on climatic conditions that can never be wholly predicted. I was unable to find out much about the ritual connected with clearing but gather it had to do with control over the sun and the rain. Another magical danger that arises in new gardens comes from the ghosts (*sowai*) lurking in the reverted gardens or bush that is being cleared. The garden thus established is the gift made by the man to the woman; the *pure* is

5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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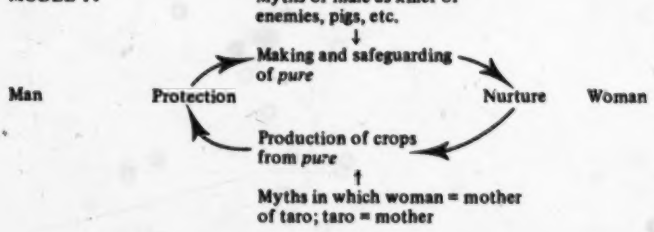
felt to be a feminine thing. In the myths it is the mother who buries the taro shoots (her children) and covers them with leaves and earth which are equated with her body. I shall show this in more detail in the next chapter.

In Williams' report on the division of labour, planting is shown as a female task, whereas the time studies of Waddell and Krinks suggest that the activity is actually shared by the couple. There is no real contradiction here, nor much evidence of change, as the man's task is to pound holes into the soil with his digging stick whereas the woman does the actual planting, or burying (*kowari*) of the seed.

Unless the normal rules are suspended, as happens at feasting time, men do not harvest taro or other products of the *pure* where taro is planted. (The rules are different for the yam garden as we shall see later.) The explanation that is given of this rule is that only the women know how to harvest crops to best advantage, i.e. at the right time and in the right quantities. If men harvested, the supply would never last through the lean season. The woman is responsible for nurture, in the widest sense. It is her task every day to bring home garden food in the large string bag suspended from her head. Contrary to what white observers have sometimes believed, this is not a symbol of female slavery, but rather of female power and it is done proudly. When my wife started to bring home produce from our own garden in Sivepe (in a different kind of bag), the women crowded round excitedly and congratulated her. The food gifts that are constantly sent from one household to another may be, at least partly, regarded as a display by the women of their own success. The products of the taro garden (though not the yam garden) may ultimately be regarded as a gift from women to men. We may summarise the total transaction as follows:

MODEL 11


Myths of male as killer of enemies, pigs, etc.
Making and safeguarding of *pure*
Man
Protection
Nurture
Woman
Production of crops from *pure*
Myths in which woman = mother of taro; taro = mother

On the basis of such a model, what precisely is the nature of 'rights' in land enjoyed by husbands and wives? A simple analogy would be a jointly owned machine of which one party controls all the bolts and the other controls all the nuts. The assets of neither party have any value independently of the other. Value can be created only by the co-operative *action* of screwing together bolts and nuts. Land transactions between Orokaiva husbands and wives are similarly a sequence of cumulative co-operative actions, such that each move by one party calls forth an appropriate response. The only 'rights' are 'rights' to responses once certain moves have been made. Legal disputes can in practice arise only if

423 one party fails to make the required response. It creates a wrong impression to
593 speak of land being 'vested' in a man if all he has (independently of some
[578] woman) is a cleared patch of ground on which nothing grows; nor is the woman in a better position as she cannot (independently) bring any crop to maturity as she needs the man's garden magic. As we shall see below, 'rights' in all Orokaiva land transactions are limited in some way similar to this.

3. *Land Transactions between Men and Spirits*

775 A second basic transaction mediated by the land is that between the soul of a
423 recently deceased person and a new-born infant. The Orokaiva believe in
887 transmigration of souls. But this transmigration occurs through the mediation of
241 the piece of land where the spirit of the dead person has taken up special residence. This is usually the garden he or she was cultivating at the time of death. It is a fact of Orokaiva life that old people do not stop gardening as long as they have any strength left in their bodies. Waddell's study of time allocation in Sivepe showed that after the age of fifty-five, time spent on productive subsistence activity, especially in the garden, declined only slightly, whereas non-productive activity (e.g. social obligations, dealings with external agencies) declined very sharply (1968: 104). Old people devote their reduced energies almost exclusively to their gardens, grow progressively closer to their gardens and away from the social network, until finally, after death, their spirit becomes still more closely attached to the land. Their souls re-enter association with the village through transmigration.

775 Crops from the garden cultivated by the deceased may not be eaten by any
768 member of the deceased's lineage. They are harvested by the heir and given
241 away by him to persons outside the lineage. No *bere* are taken from these crops. After a suitable period of fallow, the garden is replanted, but even then the land is not thought to be free of the deceased's spirit. Very often the son or brother of the deceased plants the garden and uses the produce to give a feast. It is thought that the spirit presents no danger to food grown in that plot afterwards.

775 Transmigration is affected by a ritual performed shortly after the birth of an
851 infant. The parents take the child to the land where the spirit of the deceased is
774 believed to reside. They seek the spirit by placing leaves of a fragrant plant called *mo* in a creek which runs through the land. When the spirit is thought to have entered the leaves, the parents address it thus: 'You are dead now. We shall look after the land and we shall look after the baby so it will become big and strong. Then this child will look after the land.' The wife, in preparation for this rite, has brought the baby to the garden in a string bag, and has also brought a stick. When she arrives in the garden, she places the stick in the ground and hangs the baby in its string bag from the stick. After the ritual by the water, she drops some of the leaves by the stick, then takes the baby, the bag and the rest of the leaves and returns home with her husband. The custom is for the husband to say at night: 'I hear the baby crying.' He is expected to go back to the garden and talk to the baby that is believed to be in the stick, telling it that the parents will now look after it and there is no need to cry. He should then take the stick, with the 'baby' inside it, to his home.

[753] The significance of this ritual became a little clearer to me through the case of

5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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In any case, there are no strong economic or political reasons to prevent the splitting of the patrimony. Nor are there religious reasons, because every married male is fully competent to carry out ritual in the garden he is cultivating. The Orokaiva do not have primogeniture in the sense intended by Raglan (1963:100); it is not in the *enda mama* that the spirits of the ancestors are reincarnated, but in all the individuals of the extended family. The *enda mama*, therefore, is not the sole channel of charisma, but rather a kind of revered manager. He usually contrives to keep the patrimony together through the respect and obedience that is due, in Orokaiva custom, to a father and elder brother. I know of several instances where this authority was challenged and found that, in practice, the sons of younger brothers were not cut out of the patrimony, but their share was cut out and the relationship was severed.

Informants were all agreed that at any time either the *enda mama* or the junior member of a land-holding corporation may opt out of the relationship; such a separation involves, first of all, the breaking down of a social relationship in which protection is exchanged for deference and obedience. Therefore such a breakdown involves a high cost for both partners. When I inquired into some breakdowns that actually happened at Sivepe, I was given two kinds of explanation: (*a*) the senior partner broke off the relationship because he was not obeyed; (*b*) the junior partner broke off the relationship because the senior 'did not look after the land properly'. The first kind of explanation suggests that the elder partner, not receiving obedience, no longer received any rewards from the relationship and therefore terminated it. The second kind of explanation is more obscure as I never could find out just *how* the seniors had failed to protect the land. I gather there had been bad harvests, that the juniors thought something was wrong with the land, or that the senior had done something to provoke sorcery which endangered all the land of his lineage. Whatever the details, the juniors felt that the cost of deference to their elder brother was no longer warranted, in view of the amount of 'protection' they received. There was no fear, in any of these cases, that such a separation would be followed by retribution, physical, magical or supernatural. As I showed in Chapter III, the Orokaiva accepts fraternal strife as a natural consequence of events in primal time.

When such separations occur within a three-generation extended family, they are regarded by the community as (minor) misfortunes. On the other hand, they are regarded as normal when they occur between first cousins in a four- or five-generation lineage. Implicit in such judgements is a notion that there is a lower and an upper limit to the useful size of corporate groups. The young man who loses land rights because he has nobody to 'speak for him', obviously needs incorporation in a group. The secure man in middle age who has his land interests cut out of the control of the *enda mama* obviously feels that the useful upper limit of the corporate group has been exceeded. We may express the transactions at the lower and upper limit of the useful size of groups in the following exchange cycles:

5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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Previous research such as that of Rimoldi (1966) has shown clearly enough that the Orokaiva patrilineage is not *in practice* an enduring corporate group. The model I am proposing here goes further: it states a rule according to which patrimonies are fragmented and the fragments constituted into new units. It follows from this rule that neither lineage membership nor the principle of patrifiliation (cf. Barnes 1962, 1967) suffices to account for the inheritance of landed estates.

The basic condition for inheritance is that there should be a continuing filial or quasi-filial relation, usually based on co-residence and filial services, thus inducing the *enda mama* to make an appropriate response and continue the protection of the real or fictive junior, as symbolised by the transfer of land, often in gradual steps during the *enda mama's* lifetime.

Having shown that patrifiliation is not a sufficient condition for land inheritance, we shall proceed in the next section to show that it is also not a necessary condition. This argument will be followed by an exposition of an alternative model based on the principle of exchange.

5. *Transfers of Land outside the Corporate Group*

The land transfers so far discussed were conducted between agnates and largely prescribed by rules of inheritance. We have seen that there is some freedom of disposition, as the father is not obliged to transmit more than half of his land to his sons. His freedom is even greater if he has no resident sons or brothers. Even a man with many sons and brothers, and with only limited land holdings, is not prevented from making occasional land transfers, though these are more likely to be on only a temporary basis.

The extent of known transfers outside the rules of patrilineal succession has been recorded for the villages of Sivepe and Inonda. In Sivepe more than half of 104 parcels of land belonging to the Jegase clan have been so transferred (Rimoldi 1966:59) whereas only 15 out of 34 gardens investigated were planted by primary members of the right-holding lineage (*ibid.*: 70). In Inonda, the proportion was 20 out of 55 (Crocombe and Hogbin 1963:34). Recipients were sometimes members of the same clan but of a different lineage: sometimes they were members of another clan. The whole of the land now occupied by the Andiriha clan of Inonda was donated by the Tandai'undi of Seva in 1915, when they were affines.

Most of these transfers were made to sisters and daughters of the *enda mama* and, by implication, to the men who had married these women. They were most commonly full sisters and full daughters, but there are many cases involving classificatory and adoptive relationships. The making of such gifts depends partly on inclination; a man who greatly dislikes his son-in-law will not settle land on him. If the daughter marries outside a radius of about three miles from the home village, she usually receives no land. Many women who marry in a neighbouring village receive land close to the boundary. The popular explanation of such gifts is the deep love between a man and his sister (or his daughter). There is, however, another consideration which may have encouraged these transfers: the Orokaiva practised preferential patrilateral cross-cousin marriage, so that a village which allowed a woman to cultivate land, while married in an

5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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423 benefits between non-agnates? One might answer this question in a preliminary
431 way by saying that land is the only valuable permanent economic asset the
571 Orokaiva have at their disposal for the making of gifts to relatives and close kin.
Such gifts, apart from their economic significance, buttress social relationships
[169] both inside and outside the clan. The recipient is induced to maintain or assume a filial attitude towards the donor, with all the political implications this may have; a requirement evident not only from the social responsibilities he is apt to accept but also from the magico-religious care he must take of the spirit (ancestor of the donor) resident on the land.

423 Land gifts made to non-agnates should be considered not solely from the
431 viewpoint of sentiment, but also of their social consequence. When gifts are
made to a sister or daughter, the husband or son or the recipient must
●593 subsequently, in regular daily practice, show increased allegiance to her family. The *enda mama* of that land has become, in some ways, similar to a true father. The recipient is made to feel, however gently, that he is a dependent. Furthermore, it is a situation which it behoves him to manipulate; his rights are always ultimately uncertain. He must try to tighten his hold over the land, and in the end he can do this only by making himself loved, indispensable and redoubtable in the eyes of his maternal family.

423 The key to the significance of land in mediating relationships of this type lies
425 in the continuing doubt as to the permanence of the land transfer. At the outset it is often for a single growing season. Sometimes a man is told that he may keep the land as long as he resides in the village, or for his lifetime. But in practice his tenure depends on the course of his relationship with the donor. He may even be told that the land will be his permanently, though this is commonly only when he is the original owner's sister's or daughter's son. Such a promise of permanent occupancy, however, is never tantamount to ownership. In the next section we shall show that it remains hazardous and unwise to grow cash crops such as coffee on land given by the maternal family as long as fifty years previously, because even after this long interval claims can be made for the return of the land or of the proceeds from the crop. Thus a man has to pay very special respect to his maternal family and have regard to its wishes, if he desires continued enjoyment of the land. No other type of gift could do so much to ensure that he will feel a dual allegiance to both his paternal and maternal family.

We may summarise this relationship with the maternal family, for successful cases, in the following diagram. It will be noted that this diagram is basically similar to model 13, but there are significant differences in benefits exchanged: a maternal relative has no 'control' over the land-borrower, nor does the latter owe him any 'obedience'. Conversely, the land is not unconditionally available to further the best interests of the useholder's paternal family.

8: Waddell & Krinks E-4,5 (1964-1965) 1968 OJ23 Orokaiva OJ23

121 The reasoning is nearly syllogistic...close kin tend to share, to enter into generalized exchanges, and distant and non-kin to deal in equivalents or in guile.

He does, nevertheless, recognise three aspects of kinship distance, namely, genealogical, segmentary and spatial (or residential) distance. Of the third, he writes: 'It is not only the kinship organizes communities, but communities kinship, so that a spatial, co-residential term affects the measure of kinship distance and this the mode of exchange.' (1965:150)

Among the Mt Lamington Orokaiva exchange networks can best be understood in terms of associated kinship-residential groupings, on account of the physical separation of clans into several branches and the frequent juxtaposition of two or more such branches in a single village. Yet, even with this proviso, it is doubtful whether exchange can be viewed as the principal manifestation of social relations among kindred (if any important relations exist at all in the context of Murdoch's model) for, not only is the proportion of total production entering into the exchange system small in Sivepe, but the dimensions of the system and the number of persons with which an individual effects significant transactions are also small.

437 The following examination of the major exchange relationships of six selected individuals[1] (see Table 10:17) reveals that many are founded on a specific set of considerations, involving degrees of economic inter-dependence, rather than on general obligations to a wide range of kindred. The conclusions reached are, to a degree, determined by certain assumptions inherent in the mode of analysis. [513] Firstly, the exchanges of individual members of a household are considered instead of those of the household as a whole although a [562] man and his wife, for instance, clearly conduct exchanges on each other's behalf. Secondly, women are treated as members of their spouse's lineage group since this is the kinship context in which they are considered to be the most effective transacting agents. In spite of such limitations the fact does emerge that exchange networks are not readily explicable in terms of formal models of kinship or of exchange based on such models.

Linton. Although only adopted into Timumu clan, Linton behaves as a full member of it and retains few links with his true agnates, many of whom reside less than one hour's walk from Sivepe. The total volume of transactions effected by him exceeds that of the other selected individuals in all but two aspects: the disposal of subsistence produce and the acquisition of labour services in subsistence activities. In spite of the fact that he

1 The same six whose activity patterns are considered above. See pp.117-27.

19: Schwimmer E-5 (1966-1970) 1979 OJ23 Orokaiva OJ23

repayment was too small. It is also used in the sense of 'earnest' of a repayment that will be made in the future. If the insufficiency complained of is not made up, effectively a *tihanga* remains.

The term *pavonei* is used to indicate that the return payment is considered excessive. Far from being considered gratifying and proper, such a state of affairs is considered provocative and unfriendly. The principal meaning of *pavonei* is a stick planted in front of a coconut palm by a man who has taken some nuts and who thus acknowledges his debt. The setting up of a *pavonei* at a feast means thus to set up in the mind of the recipients of a repayment the consciousness that they are again indebted to their exchange partners. The act of setting up such a *pavonei* is often referred to as *kambari*, a verb that means principally 'to bite, to kill'. The effect of it is that the victims of the *pavonei* will themselves return an excessive repayment, and that the whole exchange will escalate to the distress of both parties. The outcome may either be war or, if relations between the parties become more amiable, one side may decide to call off the battle by restoring the balance.

A very different and entirely legitimate imbalance is what is called a *hande mine*. This is a gift such as should be made when returning a loaned object (implements, ceremonial paraphernalia etc.). It should also be added when repaying a gift made at a time of shortage when the donor himself was badly in need of the thing he gave away. A special case of this are the food gifts made to a bereaved family after a death (when the family may not garden, and when crops from the deceased's garden are no longer consumable by his family). The bereaved family must add a substantial *hande mine* to the repayment of such food gifts because of the presumption that the sudden unforeseeable demand made on the donor's food resources would create distress. The *hande mine*, if omitted, is said to create a *tihanga*.

In some respects the notions about *hande mine* resemble what Sahlins said about the Maori notion of *hau*. The magnitude of the *hande mine* expected with the return of a borrowed object is not related to the length of time it has been kept, but rather to the success the borrower had with it. If a hunter catches nothing after borrowing a gun, he owes nothing. If he has a large bag, he is expected to be generous to the lender.

The question that concerns us here is to distinguish the situations where *tihanga* is created from those where it is not created. This is no easy matter especially because *tihanga* in close associations is extraordinarily hard to establish clearly. I have shown that Orokaiva householders do sometimes count as gifts meals of cooked vegetable presented to certain categories of kin; in comparison to western society far more things are counted in the balance. The crucial distinction seems to be that some debts are reclaimed while others are not. Debts incurred by a child may be claimed by the parents when the child is adult, but in fact the child may start quite early in making some prestations, viz. when he has a small garden of his own. There is nothing extraordinary in the pattern of household co-operation, but many things that in western society would be classified as co-operation are classified by Orokaiva after the model of *hande ari* and *tihanga*.

It is therefore futile to seek to demonstrate an exchange ideology merely

19: Schwimmer E-5 (1966-1970) 1979 OJ23 Orokaiva OJ23

from behaviour, because Orokaiva parents give their children, for instance, school lunches, just as parents will do anywhere. It is only when the anthropologist inquires how such behaviour is *classified* by actors, that we find differences, e.g. that an occidental mother will say she is doing her duty to her children when an Orokaiva mother will count the school lunches along with other lots of gift exchange taro she has distributed that day. If the anthropologist proceeds to ask whether the mother expects a counterprestation, a minimum of casuistic talent will suggest the answer to her that she will get it all back in her old age.

The hard fact is that some *tihanga* are collectable, others not. Naturally one collects what one can. A more apposite but difficult field of enquiry would be: when do people stop allowing others to accumulate uncollectable debts? The commonly given, almost standard answer to unwelcome requests for *hande* is: *irae* (it's all gone). This is by no means always true but, over a longer run, it would be hard indeed to stop giving until the supplies are gone. The only room for exercising free will is in deciding to whom one will share out what one has. Orokaiva do not accumulate debt to the same extent as many other more hierarchised New-Guinean groups,[5] because there is a rule against borrowing for ceremonial prestations. Big men may give on such occasions; they may not lend. Even so, a good part of any *hande* will go to sundry creditors, while the rest will go to set up debts among others. Here the social scientist cannot hope to write rules for what is essentially an art.

One may say that the highest social status is reserved to the skilled manipulator, the *hande embo*, who is also often called *otohu embo*, a term discussed in much detail elsewhere (Schwimmer 1973; ch. 9) which means not only a generous, honourable man, but even in a sense, 'a holy man'. My field data show that the persons in my village to whom this term may be most nearly applied, practised great care in balancing their accounts and minimising their debts within the village. It was those who lacked ambition for 'big man' status who allowed their debts to ride indefinitely. They did ask for help in feasting and other more or less public causes, but not often the kind that set up *tihanga* against them. It may also be relevant that the rules I have been setting out here do not apply so closely to European type resources such as money and objects bought with money and I never heard that it set up a *tihanga* if a friend pays your taxes. Money was, at the time of my research, little more than a toy, except if it became 'sacralised' by being included in a bridewealth or other ceremonial prestation. To be sure it then became an *integral* part of the Orokaiva exchange system, but even then I do not believe that money could become *tihanga* in the sense that its repayment was seriously demanded upon dissolution of a marriage. Perhaps the explanation of this paradox lies in Sahlins's theory of *hau*: the possession of valuables such as ornaments has a definite *yield*, in blessings gained by the donor, *hande mine* gained by the lender. On the other hand, money (except if kept for other ceremonial prestations) vanishes without a trace, without any noticeable yield, at least among Orokaiva. Presentation of money at a wedding or other ceremony, while highly honorific, is in fact a destruction of value, like coppers at a potlatch.

21: Belshaw E-5 (1951) 1951 OJ23 Orokaiva OJ23
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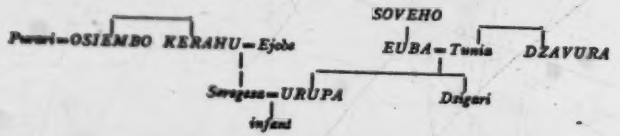
the final situation is satisfactorily sorted out. In such ways, incidentally, it is probable that new clans are formed.

Another factor which must inevitably delay re-building is the activity needed to re-establish social connections. When I was at Popota village one week-end I checked on food that was being eaten, and found that although the children were carefully fed with nuts, pumpkin tops and other valuable foods, the adults were either going without food altogether or eating the despised wild yam; their taro gardens were rotten or choked with weeds. I noticed with surprise a group of people, heavily laden with bags of taro, hurrying along the road. They walked straight into the village and up to a house, and a few minutes later I heard the noise of crying and wailing. A group of nine people were sitting in two rows facing each other under the shadow of a humpy. The relationship of the whole group, with the exception of two unrelated village women, is expressed in the following diagram (capitals signifies men, lower case women).



Kerahu and Ejobe lived in Popota, and their daughter Seregeza married a Sasembata man. When the volcano erupted parents and daughter were evacuated in different directions, and although from time to time they heard news of each other they were unable to see each other. When they returned to their villages the daughter's first thought was to visit her parents, but this could not be done until a humpy had been built and a present of food collected. On this day that they met the procedure was almost automatic: it was like a well-rehearsed play in which every actor knew his part. Seregeza sat down with her baby, and her father gently cried by her side. Her mother sat in front of her, embracing her and crying in a wail:

Naw kahare tato tungenu
Ijoka fouda tato tungenu.

This was translated for me as "I am the girl who was chased away, to other countries, other places chased away." Meanwhile Urupa and his family squatted on mats facing the crying group and chewing areca nut, and Purari with a village woman relieved Seregeza of her bag of taro and began peeling it. The wailing continued for about an hour, other friends and relatives joining the group, and then conversation became general and food was eaten.

In such ways are the social connections remade. And some thought and activity is being devoted to other ends as well—the dance, for instance. Although there was no desire evident to conduct large mortuary feasts for those who had been killed, it may be expected that, as gardens come back into bearing, individuals will

permanent gifts of land: the populous mission village, if granted a permanent landed foothold, might well become excessively powerful and even oppressive. As long as the missionaries had only temporary tenure, their dependence on the villagers would always remain manifest.

No Orokaiva begrudged the mission teachers their special and high status derived from their office as teachers and preachers. While their duties were mostly with the school, they all gave occasional religious lessons in the villages. One teacher made such a visit to Sivepe nominally once a month, and always after there had been a serious village fight, thus helping the reconciliation of the combatants. There was an even more marked respect for the priest, deacon and AMO. This respect was expressed, for instance, when the village trade store at Sasembata villages, which usually operated on a fairly strict cash basis, was willing to give credit to mission teachers. (Regrettably, some proved slow payers.) There was also a convention whereby fights were promptly stopped when a mission teacher appeared and asked the combatants to stop. (The same taboo exists against fighting in the presence of cross-cousins of the category known as simbo.)

The coastal immigrants, however, aspired in addition to a general cultural ascendance. As one example of this, they liked to introduce among the Orokaiva their coastal dances and songs. The Orokaiva were avid pupils (as their culture history suggests they have been long before the days of Christianity). At the big dance held at the mission station in June, 1967, at least two entirely new dances, both of coastal origin, were introduced, one by the women of Sivepe and Kongohambo, and one by men and women from Waseta. In both cases, the teachers were missionaries from the coast. In both cases, the dance had never previously been seen in Orokaiva territory.

A significant source of power for the mission settlement was its indispensable role in the containment of quarrels not only within but also between villages. Sports matches tended to lead to fights, but they tended to be far more peaceful if they were held on the mission station. This was a place where people had to repress their anger. During my stay at Sivepe, several attempts were made to play matches in the village, but after two serious fights, people agreed with the priest's suggestion to play on the station in future.

Section 2: A Case History: Women's Organisations and the Mission

The following brief description of women's organisations in the Sasembata area, and especially Sivepe, will illustrate the general propositions concerning mission-village relationships set out in the previous section. There are no traditional women's organisations among the Orokaiva, though the women do certainly at times act as a solidary group in village affairs, especially when a husband is seen maltreating his wife. The other women will then club together with the wronged

575 wife, effectively shaming the husband. Today's organisations are
[593] sponsored by the government as well as the mission. The government
[626] employs a female "welfare officer," attached to the Department of
[657] District Administration at Popondetta, who is charged with the organising and supervising of what are cal'ed women's clubs. These clubs, set up in villages, are expected to follow a set programme, designed by the welfare officer, aimed at improving village hygiene, housekeeping and craft work. The women are also encouraged to play basketball at club meetings. They learn to sew, bake scones, etc., make bark cloth for sale, are given talks on infant welfare and generally learn Australian ideas about home care. Clubs are encouraged to buy sewing machines, instructed in their use and care, shown how to cut patterns, how to launder, and so forth. Courses lasting two weeks are given periodically at the Higaturu Council building, to which a number of selected officers of local women's clubs are invited. Usually these are presidents and secretaries of clubs. They are taught the various skills to be inculcated and expected to pass on their knowledge in the village. The women are expected to persuade the men to build a meeting hall for the club. Money for the club is raised by regular dues, by the sale of bark cloth, and by the sale of cakes, scones and the like on club days. (The buying of ovens is also encouraged.) Inonda had such a club, built a club house in 1967 and had the use of a sewing machine. Kiorota had a club house, used not only by the women but also by the men when there were important visitors.

794 In the Sasembata district, the women's clubs became fused with
575 their mission counterpart, the mother's union. The latter had existed from the early 1950's, and were accustomed to have prayer meetings, clean the church and the cemetery, sew for the hospital and carry out other church work usually allotted to women. The president of the mother's union was the pastor's wife, a woman of some ambition. For the convenience of the members of the mother's union, many of whom lived too far away to attend regularly at the mission station, several branches were formed, in places such as Kendata and Puri, while the villages within easy reach (Sasembata, Sivepe, Garoubi, Binduta, Kongohambo, Torogota) mostly attended the central branch. When the government founded the women's clubs, the territorial units covered by the clubs soon became identical with the areas covered by the branches of the mother's union. Furthermore, the club which included Sivepe and the mission station chose as its president the pastor's wife, as well as the same secretary, a young Sivepe woman. The two organisations thus became identical in territorial boundaries, largely identical in personnel and rather similar in some of their activities. To mention but one instance, it was natural for the club to use the mother's union sewing machine for the club sewing programme.

The membership of the mother's union, in Sivepe at least, was somewhat larger than the membership of the women's club. The younger women were all active in both. Once a month they went to mother's union, did the necessary church work, cooked a common meal, prayed

CHAPTER II: Socio-Economic Factors

Section 1: Age, Sex and Marital Status

121 In this chapter, the study of internal variations will be continued, by a consideration of the human resources available to the villages and their economic productivity. A statistical analysis of 162 the population by age, sex and marital status (see Table 16)[A] shows that 464 the labour force lacks a proportionate number of young men in early adulthood; the number of men in the vigour of life is somewhat smaller, 166 in Sivepe, than the number of women. The reason for this change is 167 that young men leave the village to earn money elsewhere. They often do this before marriage, so that the bachelors' houses tend to be 464 occupied by a much smaller number than formerly; but after they are married they usually do not at once settle down in the village. It is 583 unusual nowadays for a bridepri.e to be paid in full at the time of the wedding. Usually this payment is delayed; the young husband goes out to work for it and after one or two years he sends back money and it is paid. At the one brideprice payment I observed in Sivepe, the groom was not even present. He was at his job in Port Moresby and the role of groom was taken over by another man from the same lineage--a married man with six children, as it happened, who duly cut the firewood and carried the water required for the entertainment of his [484] affines. Even after the bridewealth is paid, then, the husband continues to work at his job, rarely seeing his wife as travel is expensive and leave infrequently granted.

● 593 Because of these infrequent visits, young wives have few children, but they receive regular gifts of money from their husband. 592 Eventually, the husband returns home; it is hard to say just what makes him decide. Before the age of 30 he usually starts to establish a family, and he then stays home continuously, to look after his garden [469] and his coffee. He may occasionally go back to town for a few months to earn money, but judging by the few examples I saw, he is not always successful at finding a job and even if he does so, he takes an early opportunity or uses an early excuse, to return home, carrying home some presents for his family and perhaps a little money. The family does not seem to be too troubled about the loss of earnings that result from his return. Some men manage to find accommodation for their families in town, in which case they all migrate.

This generalised picture needs qualifying. There were six Sivepe women (out of nine married women with absent husbands) who received regular gifts; three of these women were living in the household of a single man while another family head had under his control two

A [See Cat. 116, pp. 221-222--Analyst]

593 592 further such lucrative young females. Of the six, two were Sivepe women while the other four were women from other villages residing virilocally. A great many other families did not derive income in this way. Some of these, however, had daughters living in other villages, and their husbands too were sources of institutionalised gifts.

469 433 Though Waddell showed that the loss of adult male workers through migration is already serious (37.8% in Sivepe and 25% in Inonda), the point had not been reached when the loss of manpower led to a decline in the production from garden lands. Waddell may, however, be right in ascribing the increasing consumption of the inferior Xantosoma taro (see page 35 above) to the deflection of the adult male labour force which had to support old people whose vigour 887 had declined. The older men did not stop work abruptly at a certain age; they would continue to go to their gardens, but the areas cultivated would become smaller; their children or young affines would help them. If an old man became widowed his daughter or daughter-in-law would cook food for him; in the case of a widow, uncooked food might be given, but most widows tend to live in a house where there are male relatives, the only two exceptions in the sample being the two widows [463] who stayed in the old village of Sivepe. There are also activities which are a specialty of the old: they tend to be the village artists and also the village sorcerers. When we wanted to buy artifacts, it was the old men who made the ornaments, the old women who made the best pots and painted the best bark-cloth. Similarly, the most active curers in the village were two old men and one old woman.

595 585 586 I saw no evidence of polygamy currently practised. Marriages were always consecrated at the time the couple was baptised. Several people had at one time been divorced, but this was prior to the time of baptism.

464 In Inonda, as I wrote earlier, no absent husbands sent money home. The only woman at Inonda whose husband was away from the village was in jail, after breaking into a trade store with a hammer belonging to another man from Inonda. On the other hand, one man earned a living as a government driver, thus becoming more or less removed from the work in his subsistence and coffee gardens. Some other men took over his work, in return for appropriate counter gifts and services. In both villages, therefore, a pattern existed of outside earnings derived by a limited number of people whose garden work was taken over by other members of the village labour pool, while the money earnings were in one way or another widely shared among villagers.

Section 2: Division of Labour

114 464 The division of labour was the special subject of a study carried out in Sivepe by my predecessor, Mr. Waddell. As he has been

A [See Cat. 116--Analyst]

a village as small as Sivepe, statistical samples will sometimes show freakish features of which the sociological significance should not be overestimated.

Nine of the 12 labour migrants came from two of the families, namely the family of the village constable and that of the man who was councillor for Sivepe over the years following 1956. The other migrants came from three further Jegase families. The reason for all these movements was, of course, the absence of employment opportunities close to Sivepe. One absentee from Sivepe was a boy of the Sebo clan who was at a secondary boarding school (Martyr's school, at Agenahambo).

Dissension was the reason for both the major migratory movements into Sivepe. The two Jegase families who came to Sivepe around 1956 were originally residents of a hamlet near Binduta called Korinasusu. All the other families of Korinasusu belonged to a different clan (Usohu). Conflicts between the groups arose; one Jegase man felt sure that deaths in his family were caused by Usohu sorcery and left. Another Jegase man was then accused of sorcery against Usohu and decided it would be wiser if he left too. At one time, such families might have set up a separate hamlet, but the government pressure towards consolidated villages led to their settlement at Sivepe, where there were a number of other Jegase families.

I was not able to reconstruct precisely what led to the Sorovi migration. Two of the men who settled in Sivepe were brothers of the Garombi feast leader and the other men were linked with these two by affinity or close friendship, as well as common clan membership. It is a general principle of Orokaiva family structure that the oldest brother in any family has absolute control over the family land and other family assets; he takes the place of the father. There is no sort of appeal against his decisions. He has the duty to "look after" his younger brothers and see that they prosper. If he fails in this task, the younger brothers have only one recourse; namely, to leave. In practise, the oldest brother is often compelled to divide up the patri-money when such a split-up occurs. Certainly this is what happened in the present case. The younger brothers renounced their elder's protection and started out on their own. Again, due to government pressure, they joined an existing village rather than starting a new one, as they might once have preferred.

Sivepe was chosen for several reasons. One of them undoubtedly was the link that existed through the three women from Ajoro who had been captured and taken to wives by men from Garombi and Sivepe. The descendants of these men regarded themselves as bound by common ancestry, because the three Ajoro women were regarded as being closely related (nobody could say how, but the fact that they came from the same village was said to be sufficient). This was a link between Sorovi and one lineage of Jegase; there were also specific links with a Sebo lineage. Furthermore, as was often emphsised to me, there were links of hereditary friendship. Also, the families had land very close to Sivepe.